

## COMMENTARY

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# Adjuvanted vaccines as tools to enhance immunity and support healthy aging in older adults

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Older adults often experience reduced vaccine responsiveness, although varying between vaccines, resulting in persistently high morbidity from infections. This is in part mediated by immunosenescence, a significant decline in immune function associated with aging. Here, we discuss the role of adjuvanted vaccines in enhancing immune responses and supporting healthy aging in older adults. Adjuvanted vaccines offer a targeted strategy to counteract these age-related immune deficits. Clinical evidence shows that MF59-adjuvanted influenza vaccines and AS01-based herpes zoster and RSV vaccines enhance immunogenicity. Mechanistically, adjuvants compensate for impaired innate signaling, improve antigen presentation, strengthen germinal center responses, and promote robust cell-mediated immunity. Beyond pathogen-specific protection, emerging data suggest potential broader benefits of adjuvanted vaccines, including effects on frailty progression, cardiovascular events, and possibly dementia, raising the hypothesis that adjuvants may improve overall immune and physiological resilience, through mechanisms not yet understood. Future research integrating mechanistic profiling with aging-relevant clinical endpoints will be essential to determine whether adjuvanted vaccines can serve as tools for healthy aging.

*Vaccine Insights* 2026; 5(), 249–258 · DOI: [10.18609/vac.2026.032](https://doi.org/10.18609/vac.2026.032)

## OLDER ADULTS MOUNT SUBOPTIMAL VACCINE RESPONSES

In the past decades, vaccination programs have profoundly reduced mortality and morbidity from infectious diseases [1]. Yet

in older adults, typically defined as individuals of 65 years or older, vaccine effectiveness and immunogenicity are suboptimal [2]. This results in a persistent and substantial clinical burden of infectious diseases in this population, including influenza,

COVID-19, respiratory syncytial virus (RSV) [3], pneumococcal disease [4], and herpes zoster [5]. Adults  $\geq 65$  years account for the vast majority of influenza-related hospitalizations and deaths in high-income countries, even where vaccine coverage is high. Observational vaccine effectiveness studies report moderate protection with standard-dose influenza vaccines in this age group, with effectiveness varying across seasons and outcomes [6]. For COVID-19, observational networks documented reduced and less durable protection in older adults, with booster doses restoring but not fully eliminating the age gap [7]. In addition to chronological age, factors such as comorbidities, frailty, inflammaging, defined as chronic low-grade inflammation, and accumulated antigenic exposure over the life course modify vaccine responses in ways that standard vaccine formulations were not designed to address [2,8]. Frailty independently attenuates vaccine performance and worsens outcomes, for example vaccine effectiveness against influenza hospitalization diminishes with increasing frailty, and randomized/real-world analyses show that frail adults experience more severe complications during influenza seasons [9]. Here, we explore how adjuvanted vaccines enhance immune responses in older adults and how this potentially translates to healthy aging.

#### IMMUNOSENESCENCE IS A MAJOR FACTOR THAT CONTRIBUTES TO SUBOPTIMAL VACCINE RESPONSES

Aging is associated with a gradual but profound dysregulation of the immune system, which impairs the magnitude, quality, and durability of vaccine responses [2]. Immunosenescence reflects a complex remodeling of the immune system, affecting innate sensing, antigen presentation, clonal diversity as well as the generation of effective antibody and T cell-mediated responses (Figure 1) [10].

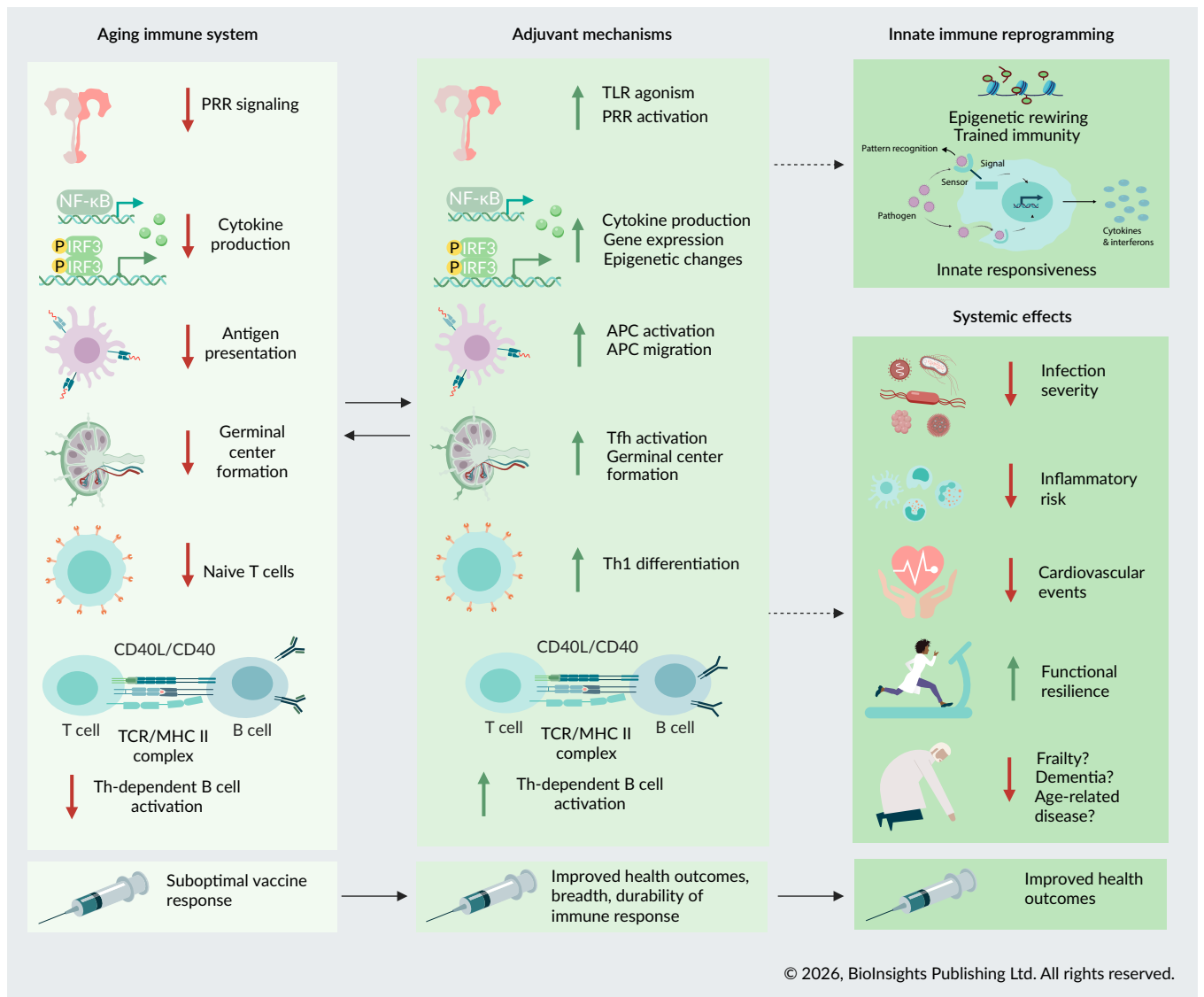
At the level of innate immunity, older adults simultaneously experience inflammaging and reduced pathogen recognition and immune signaling [11–13]. For instance, dendritic cells exhibit reduced pattern recognition receptor (PRR) signaling, diminished expression of co-stimulatory molecules, and reduced production of cytokines such as interferon-gamma (IFN- $\gamma$ ) and TNF-alpha (TNF- $\alpha$ ) [14]. These changes hinder efficient antigen presentation and diminish early inflammatory signals required for robust germinal center (GC) formation and downstream adaptive responses [10].

The adaptive immune system also undergoes substantial functional and structural alterations during the aging process. Germinal centers undergo both quantitative and qualitative decline, diminishing in number and size, limiting affinity maturation and the generation of durable memory B cell responses [10]. Age-related thymic involution progressively reduces the output of naïve T lymphocytes, thereby narrowing the T cell receptor (TCR) repertoire and limiting responsiveness to novel antigens [15]. Furthermore, senescent T cells show reduced CD40 ligand (CD40L) expression, which impairs T cell-dependent B cell activation and the subsequent coordination of humoral immune responses [12]. The bone marrow similarly shows reduced B cell production, resulting in contraction of the naïve B cell repertoire. Decreased expression of activation-induced cytidine deaminase (AID) further compromises somatic hypermutation and immunoglobulin class-switch recombination in germinal centers [10].

These age-related immune changes provide a biological basis for the reduced effectiveness and durability of vaccine-induced protection in older compared with younger adults. A clearer understanding of the multifactorial nature of immunosenescence may help guide the development of more effective vaccines for older adults [16].

► FIGURE 1

Conceptual framework illustrating the interaction between immunosenescence and adjuvant-induced immune activation.



Conceptual framework illustrating the interaction between immunosenescence and adjuvant-induced immune activation and how this may contribute to broader systemic effects beyond pathogen-specific protection. While adjuvants enhance innate and adaptive immune responses, their potential impact on systemic outcomes such as trained immunity and healthy aging remains an area of ongoing investigation.

### ADJUVANTED VACCINES INCREASE IMMUNOGENICITY & EFFICACY IN OLDER ADULTS

In recent years, several countries have implemented recommendations favoring high-dose or adjuvanted influenza vaccine formulations for older adults [17]. Both approaches have demonstrated improved

clinical protection in older adults compared with standard-dose vaccines [18–20].

Influenza vaccines adjuvanted with MF59, a squalene-based emulsion in use since 1997, have demonstrated improved immunogenicity and clinical performance compared with standard-dose formulations in older adults. A systematic review and meta-analysis estimated a relative

effectiveness advantage of about 14% compared with standard-dose vaccines [19]. Additional observational studies suggest that adjuvanted influenza vaccination may also reduce cardiorespiratory and cardiovascular hospitalizations in older adults, consistent with evidence that influenza vaccination decreases major adverse cardiovascular events and all-cause mortality in high-risk populations [21].

Similarly, the AS01-adjuvanted recombinant zoster vaccine (RZV) demonstrated high efficacy across older age groups, with Phase 3 trials reporting 97.2% efficacy in adults aged  $\geq 50$  years and 89.8% efficacy in those  $\geq 70$  years [22]. Importantly, protection remained durable, with long-term follow-up studies showing sustained efficacy remaining around 90% against herpes zoster nearly ten years after vaccination [23]. In comparison, the live attenuated herpes zoster vaccine reduced the reactivation incidence by 51.3% [24].

More recently, the AS01E-adjuvanted RSV prefusion F protein vaccine demonstrated 82.6% efficacy against RSV-associated lower respiratory tract disease and 94.1% efficacy against severe disease in adults aged  $\geq 60$  years in a large Phase 3 randomized trial [25]. However, there are currently no differences observed in vaccine effectiveness between the adjuvanted RSVPreF3 and the unadjuvanted bivalent RSVpreF in the overall population aged 60 years and above [26] suggesting that differences between the vaccines may lie more in the quality or the durability of the immune responses. Indeed, the addition of the adjuvant to the RSVPreF3 antigen has been shown to impact the induction of polyfunctional CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells [27].

#### IMMUNOLOGICAL MECHANISMS OF ADJUVANTS COUNTERACT IMMUNOSENESCENT DYSFUNCTION

Despite their diversity, adjuvants enhance vaccine-induced immune responses

through a set of common immunological mechanisms (Figure 1). The central mechanism of action is the activation of innate immunity. Adjuvants promote the release of chemokines and cytokines that recruit monocytes, dendritic cells, and neutrophils to the injection site, facilitating efficient antigen uptake and migration of activated antigen-presenting cells (APCs) to draining lymph nodes. In parallel, they enhance APC activation, including upregulation of co-stimulatory molecules and improved antigen presentation, thereby augmenting both humoral and cellular immune responses [28–31].

Different adjuvants achieve this through distinct, but partly overlapping, pathways. Aluminum salts, used for more than a century in many licensed vaccines, are particulate adjuvants that undergo phagocytosis by immune cells, establishing a persistent intracellular depot of aluminum ions. These ions potentiate immune responses through multiple mechanistic pathways: by delaying maturation of phagosomes, elevating the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS), and metabolically reprogramming the cell toward an activated, antigen-presenting phenotype [32]. However, aluminum salts in influenza and hepatitis B vaccines have shown more limited enhancement of immune responses in older adults compared to newer adjuvants [33]. MF59 enhances antibody production and binding affinity. It additionally promotes broader epitope recognition [14]. The AS01 adjuvant system used in the RZV (AS01B) and RSV vaccine (RSVPreF3, AS01E (half dose of AS01B)) combines Monophosphoryl Lipid A (MPL; Toll-like receptor (TLR) 4 agonist) and QS-21 (a saponin), to induce strong Th1-biased cell-mediated immune responses, including early IFN- $\gamma$  signaling important for MHC-II dependent antigen presentation [14]. Its liposomal formulation facilitates antigen delivery into the cytosol, which contributes to antigen presentation via the MHC-I

pathway, cross-presentation and activation of cytotoxic CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells [14]. Other adjuvants such as MPL in AS04 (TLR4), CpG oligonucleotides (TLR9), and newer TLR4-agonist emulsions (e.g., GLA-SE) similarly act as direct TLR agonists providing defined innate immune stimuli [14].

#### BEYOND PATHOGEN-SPECIFIC IMMUNITY: TRAINED IMMUNITY & NON-SPECIFIC EFFECTS OF VACCINES

While the mechanisms of adjuvants are conventionally interpreted in the context of improved antigen-specific immunity, the underlying biology appears to counteract known features of immunosenescence (Figure 1) [2, 34].

In this sense, adjuvanted vaccines may be conceptualized as interventions that not only improve pathogen-specific responses but also modulate non-specific effects. Indeed, epidemiological observations across respiratory pathogens show that vaccination of older adults has effects that extend beyond preventing the infection and its direct complications.

Influenza vaccination in older adults has been associated with reductions in cardiovascular events, frailty progression, and disability, which may not be fully explained by reduced infection burden alone and could involve immune-mediated effects [35]. Although this has been observed for standard inactivated vaccines, the effects are found to be more pronounced for enhanced influenza vaccines [18]. RSV vaccines also substantially reduce hospitalizations and severe outcomes in older adults, populations in whom respiratory infections often trigger cascades of decline such as functional deterioration, decompensation of chronic diseases, and prolonged recovery trajectories [36, 37].

Emerging epidemiological observations have also suggested a possible association between herpes zoster vaccination and reduced dementia risk [38–42]. This trend

appears for both the live-attenuated and RZV vaccines but was notably stronger for RZV, formulated with AS01. A similar but more modest association was also observed for the AS01E-adjuvanted RSV vaccine [43]. This may not solely reflect prevention of infection but could point to an adjuvant-driven mechanism. This signal, while preliminary and not yet mechanistically understood, reinforces the need to examine whether vaccine-induced (innate) immune responses can influence aging-relevant outcomes beyond infection alone.

More broadly, such clinical outcomes point toward a potential impact of vaccination on physiological resilience, independent of strictly antigen-specific processes.

One potential explanatory framework involves features of trained immunity [44]. Trained immunity, or innate immune memory, describes a phenomenon in which innate cells, such as monocytes, macrophages, and NK cells, undergo long-lasting functional and metabolic reprogramming, mediated in part by epigenetic modifications, following an initial stimulus, leading to heightened responsiveness to subsequent challenges [45]. This concept is best established for live-attenuated vaccines such as BCG, which have been shown to induce durable innate immune reprogramming and heterologous protection against unrelated pathogens [46]. The extent to which such processes occur in older adults following vaccination remains incompletely understood.

Evidence for similar effects following non-live vaccines or specific adjuvants is more limited and context dependent. Studies show that MF59 and AS03 can induce sustained innate immune reprogramming consistent with features of trained immunity [47,48]. However, direct evidence linking these effects to clinical outcomes in aging populations is currently lacking. Whether adjuvants contribute to the observed clinical benefits in older

adults through induction of trained immunity, improved coordination of innate and adaptive responses, or by reducing baseline inflammatory load remains an open question.

### ADJUVANTED VACCINES AS TOOLS FOR HEALTHY AGING?

Given the interplay between inflammaging, immunosenescence, and chronic disease, older adults may benefit from vaccine strategies that do more than induce classical memory responses. Mounting evidence supporting (adjuvanted) vaccines in older adults suggests that their value extends beyond pathogen-specific protection, positioning them as promising immunobiological tools relevant to healthy aging [49]. While their licensed indications target specific infections, the underlying immunological mechanisms of adjuvants allow us to propose a broader hypothesis: adjuvants may promote immune and physiological resilience in older adults by coordinating innate immune function and responsiveness.

An enhancement of innate responsiveness and an innate immune reprogramming could not only explain a reduction in infection severity, but also in maladaptive inflammation, and/or an overall improvement in baseline immune coordination. This, in turn, improves balanced inflammatory control, tissue-immune communication, and enables more proportionate responses to physiological stressors. Overall, this increased immune resilience may help stabilize multiple organ systems and thereby contribute to broader systemic benefits across age, including reduced cardiovascular stress, attenuation of frailty progression, and possibly reduced risk for dementia.

This extends the conventional view of adjuvants as enhancers of antigen-specific responses and places immunization alongside other interventions aimed at maintaining physiological resilience, lowering

inflammatory burden, and preserving physiological reserve.

Taken together: adjuvanted vaccines may act as tools for healthy aging by boosting innate immune function and trained immunity, with the pathogen-specific protection serving as a readout of a broader, beneficial re-tuning of the aging immune system. The mechanistic prerequisites (local innate activation, APC reprogramming, and Th1-skewing) are present, and the durability signals in older adults are encouraging for several adjuvanted platforms. The extent to which these features translate into broader systemic effects remains to be fully defined.

### FUTURE RESEARCH

The clinical successes of MF59-adjuvanted influenza vaccines and AS01-based zoster and RSV vaccines in older adults suggest that targeted innate stimulation can partially overcome key features of immunosenescence. Yet the underlying mechanisms remain incompletely resolved, particularly with regard to whether adjuvants merely compensate for weak innate signaling or fundamentally re-condition aged immunity.

To transform this hypothesis into evidence, several areas warrant investigation. We need a dedicated research track to mechanistically investigate the central claim that adjuvants remodel aged innate checkpoints, and that trained immunity improves immune fitness in late life. What remains to be understood is whether the innate reprogramming they trigger extends beyond the vaccine response itself and meaningfully shifts the immunological trajectories during aging. The central task is to uncover how this trained immunity imprint interacts with the hallmarks of immunosenescence and whether it can mitigate the chronic inflammation and impaired responsiveness that characterize late-life immunity.

To answer these questions, we need

longitudinal studies in older adults coupling clinical endpoints with high-resolution single-cell epigenetic and metabolic profiling to track how adjuvants remodel innate and adaptive responses. Crucially, biological signatures should be connected to outcomes that matter for aging: frailty trajectories, disability, cardiovascular decompensation, and cognition. Comparative adjuvant trials can then identify which platforms deliver the most durable reprogramming and the best ‘fit’ for different aging phenotypes, with sex-, frailty- and multimorbidity-stratified enrollment to reflect real-world heterogeneity. In addition, the timing and scheduling of administration, including repeated dosing across seasons or years

should be investigated as a potential determinant of durability and cumulative effects. Importantly, biological sex is an underexplored determinant of immune aging and of variability in vaccine-induced immune responses which should be systematically integrated into study design and analysis.

Ultimately, such studies will help determine whether adjuvanted vaccines should be viewed solely as enhanced immunogens, or as interventions that modulate broader aspects of immune function in aging individuals. If supported by mechanistic and clinical evidence, this paradigm would position adjuvanted vaccines as contributors to healthier immune aging, complementing their established role in

pathogen-specific protection.

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**Contributions:** The named authors take responsibility for the integrity of the work as a whole, and have given their approval for this version to be published.

**Acknowledgements:** None.

**Disclosure and potential conflicts of interest:** Isabel Leroux-Roels has received grants or research support paid to her institution from GSK, MSD, CSL Seqirus, Janssen Vaccines, Abbott, Curevac, Moderna, Virometix, Astrivax Therapeutics and Osivax for conducting vaccine trials, as well as from Janssen Vaccines, MSD, CSL Seqirus and Vifor for participation on a data safety monitoring board or advisory board. **Funding declaration:** The author received no financial support for the research, authorship and/or publication of this article.

**AI process statement:** AI tools (Claude) were used to support non-creative editorial tasks such as transcription, organization of source material, language tidying, house style checks, and reference formatting.

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**Article source:** This article was written by the named authors and reviewed by BioInsights' Editorial team to ensure clarity, scientific accuracy, and alignment with BioInsights' editorial standards.

**Submitted for peer review:** Apr 8, 2026.

**Revised manuscript received:** May 26, 2026.

**Publication date:** Jun 8, 2026.